



Selective photocatalytic CO₂ reduction to CH₄ over Pt/In₂O₃: Significant role of hydrogen adatom

Yabo Wang^a, Jie Zhao^{b,*}, Yingxuan Li^b, Chuanyi Wang^{a,c,**}

^a School of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, Shihezi University, Shihezi, Xinjiang 832003, China

^b School of Environmental Sciences and Engineering, Shaanxi University of Science & Technology, Xian, Shaanxi 710021, China

^c Laboratory of Environmental Sciences and Technology, Xinjiang Technical Institute of Physics and Chemistry, Key Laboratory of Functional Materials and Devices for Special Environments, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Urumqi, Xinjiang 830011, China

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ABSTRACT

The selectivity of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction to CH₄ can be enhanced over Pt-decorated semiconductors, which is commonly attributed to the fact that a Schottky junction is formed, thus enhancing photoinduced electron lifetime. However, it is difficult to understand why the yield of CO—the other product of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction—is decreased only in terms of photoinduced electron lifetime. In this work, the mechanism of Pt-promoted CH₄ formation was probed again in a gas-solid system of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction over highly-dispersed-Pt decorated In₂O₃ nanorods (Pt/In₂O₃). It was found that the presence of Pt modulates the surface property of In₂O₃ due to electronic and steric effect, resulting in a loss of HCO₃[−], b-CO₃^{2−} and m-CO₃^{2−} species for the coadsorption of CO₂ with H₂O. However, this is not directly related with the high CH₄ selectivity and low CO yield on the Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts. Photocatalytic reductions of CO, HCOOH, CH₂O, and CH₃OH as well as photocatalytic CO₂ reduction over photocatalysts with different H₂ uptakes confirm that H adatoms derived from H₂ or H₂O dissociation on Pt play a key role in the formation of CH₄. Low H₂ dissociation barrier on Pt and weak H–Pt bond facilitate the bonding of C in CO₂ with H, thus restraining CO production. In other words, the metallic Pt acts as atomic hydrogen reservoir that supplies sufficient and readily available protons for CH₄ formation over Pt-decorated semiconductors. The present work offers a new window to explore non-noble metals or their alloys with stability in air and high dissociation ability to H₂ or H₂O as a replacement of Pt for CO₂ photoreduction to CH₄.

1. Introduction

Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction is gaining wide interest because it is a promising “green chemistry” route driven by sunlight for the direct conversion of CO₂ into value-added fuels [1–5]. Both liquid (HCOOH, HCHO, and CH₃OH) and gas-phase (CH₄) products have been detected under ambient conditions in liquid-solid system where photocatalysts are dispersed in a CO₂-saturated aqueous solution [6]. CO and CH₄ are commonly produced at the solid–gas interface of photocatalysts and CO₂ [7,8], while H₂ generation derived from water is a competing process accompanying the formation of CO and CH₄ [9]. The solid-gas reaction mode significantly facilitates the separation of photocatalytic materials, products, and reactants. However, it suffers from difficulty in controlling the selectivity to CH₄ production that has a higher heat of combustion [2]. The reduction of CO₂ to CO requires two photoinduced electrons with potential level more negative than −0.48 eV versus

normal hydrogen electrode (NHE) at pH = 7 [9], while CH₄ production needs eight photoinduced electrons and eight protons, involving multiple reaction steps with reduction level of −0.24 eV. Although photocatalytic CO₂ reduction to CH₄ is thermodynamically favorable, high selectivity to CH₄ production is hardly achieved over most photocatalysts [10].

Several strategies have been proposed to enhance CH₄ production selectivity, such as surface modifications, ion dopings, developing new type catalysts and metal cocatalysts. For example, hydrophobic modification of TiO₂–SiO₂ surface was used to enhance CO₂ adsorption, thus facilitating the selective generation of CH₄ from CO₂ [4]; Tahir et al. demonstrated that doping In(III) in TiO₂ remarkably increased the yield of CH₄, which was ascribed to effective charge separation and inhibited recombination of photogenerated electron–hole pairs [11]. Some unconventional photocatalysts, such as LaPO₄ nanorods [3], Zn₂GeO₄ Nanoribbons [12], SAPO-5 nanosheets [13], β-SiC [14], and so on

* Corresponding author.

** Corresponding author at: School of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, Shihezi University, Shihezi, Xinjiang 832003, China.

E-mail addresses: zhaojiehj@sust.edu.cn (J. Zhao), cwang@ms.xjb.ac.cn (C. Wang).

[15,16], were explored and exhibited a relatively high CH₄ production selectivity. Among the above stated strategies, metal cocatalyst has been a popular technique since Kraeutler and Bard first introduced Pt onto TiO₂ for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction in 1978 [17,18]. Up to now, it was also found that the enhanced CH₄ production selectivity was obtained using other noble metals (such as Pd, Ru, Rh, Ag and Ir) as cocatalysts with a common character of high chemical stability in air [5,19]. For Pt-semiconductor photocatalysts, the enhanced CH₄ production selectivity is usually attributed to an increase in photoinduced electron lifetime, owing to the formation of Schottky junctions at the Pt-semiconductor interface [20–24]. Note the fact that the CO yield is decreased accompanying the increase in CH₄ production selectivity. In principle, CO yield should be also increased when the number of photoinduced electrons was increased on the surface of Pt-semiconductor photocatalysts, since the generation of CO is dynamically more favorable. Moreover, there is no evidence indicating that the decreased CO yield was attributed to the fast transformation of CO to CH₄ [24]. In other words, the experimental observations of the high selectivity to CH₄ production and low CO yield can not be fully explained in terms of the photoinduced electron lifetime at Pt-semiconductor interfaces.

In the present work, highly-dispersed-Pt decorated In₂O₃ nanorods with a conduction-band bottom potential energy of -0.62 eV vs. NHE were prepared using a wet chemical method in conjunction with photodeposition, where an acid and alkali neutralization reaction of In(OH)₃ with H₂PtCl₆ was involved to enhance Pt dispersion. The mechanism of Pt-promoted CH₄ formation were explored again in a gas-solid system of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction. The addition of Pt leads to a loss of bicarbonates, bidentated carbonate and monodentated carbonate species for the coadsorption of CO₂ with H₂O on the surface of In₂O₃. However, this is not related with the high CH₄ selectivity and reduced CO yield over Pt/In₂O₃. The photocatalytic reductions of the intermediate products of CO₂ reduction such as CO, HCOOH, CH₂O, and CH₃OH as well as photocatalytic CO₂ reduction over photocatalysts with different H₂ uptakes confirm that H adatoms derived from dissociation adsorption of H₂ or H₂O reactant on metallic Pt play a key role in CH₄ formation, which, plus the prolonged photoinduced electron lifetime, would well explain the experimental observations of the enhanced selectivity to CH₄ and low CO yield over Pt/In₂O₃.

2. Experimental

2.1. Synthesis of In₂O₃ and Pt/In₂O₃

In(OH)₃ nanorods were prepared by following a previously reported protocol [7,25]. Specifically, 50 g of urea and 6 g of InCl₃ were dissolved in 200 mL of deionized water. The aqueous solution was then heated at 80 °C in a water bath under magnetic stirring for 4 h. After being cooled to room temperature, the white product was collected through centrifugation and washed with water to remove unreacted residues. The sample was dried at 80 °C for 4 h to obtain In(OH)₃ powder. Following that, 0.5 g of In(OH)₃ powders were dispersed into 200 mL of distilled water containing a desired amount of H₂PtCl₆ and 5 mL of methanol. The mixtures were irradiated under UV-light with the wavelength ranging from 200 to 400 nm (a light intensity of 0.120 W cm^{-2}) for 5 h, and the obtained products were collected through centrifugation and washed with water. Finally, the sample materials were annealed at 250 °C for 2 h. As-prepared photocatalysts with Pt loadings 0, 0.5, 1.3 and 2.3 wt% were denoted as In₂O₃, 0.5Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and 2.0Pt/In₂O₃, respectively. For comparison, a 1.0Pt/In₂O₃-W was prepared using the method of the photodeposition of H₂PtCl₆ on In₂O₃ derived from the calcination of In(OH)₃ nanorods at 250 °C, and a 1.0Ag/In₂O₃ with Ag loading of 1.2 wt% was prepared by using the reduction of AgNO₃ with NaBH₄ onto In₂O₃.

2.2. Photocatalyst characterization

The chemical compositions of the prepared photocatalysts were analyzed by an ARL-9800 X-ray fluorescence spectrometer (XRF). The surface area and pore size were determined using an Autosorb-IQ-MP autosorption analyzer (Quantachrome), carried out at 77.3 K using N₂ as an adsorbate. The samples were degassed at 473 K for 2 h before measurements. Pore size distribution curves were derived from the branch of adsorption isotherms. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the samples were collected under ambient atmosphere by a Bruker D8 powder diffractometer with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5408 \text{ \AA}$) generated at 40 kV and 30 mA. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) characterization was performed on a JEOL-JEM 2100 electron microscope.

UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) over a range of 200–800 nm were recorded on a UV–vis spectrophotometer (ShimadzuSolidSpec-3700DUV) with an integration sphere diffuse reflectance attachment. The energy band gaps of the as-prepared samples were calculated using $(\alpha h\nu)^n = \kappa(h\nu - E_g)$, where α is the absorption coefficient, κ is the parameter related to the effective masses associated with the valence and conduction bands, n is 1/2 for the indirect transition, $h\nu$ is the absorption energy, and E_g is the band gap energy. Plotting $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$ versus $h\nu$ based on the spectral response gives the extrapolated intercept corresponding to the E_g value. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) study was performed using a VG Microtech MT500 with an Mg-K α X-ray source. All binding energies were referenced to carbon (1s) at 285.6 eV. Time resolved luminescence intensity decays at 395 nm were recorded on a HORIBA Fluorolog-3 molecule fluorometer (France). Those samples were excited by a 300 nm laser light.

IR spectra for the coadsorption of CO₂ and H₂O were recorded with a Nicolet (IS50) spectrophotometer (MCT detector) in the range 4000–1000 cm⁻¹ with a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. The self-supporting wafers (15–20 mg) were annealed in an IR cell at 473 K in Ar for 2 h and evacuated at the same temperature for 1 h. After the IR cell was cooled, CO₂ and H₂O vapor were introduced into the cell.

Adsorptions of H₂ were carried out in a home-made volumetric adsorption system at room temperature. The catalysts were evacuated at 473 K for 2 h before the measurements. After cooling the catalysts to room temperature, doses of H₂ were admitted sequentially and the coverage of H₂ was measured until the equilibrium pressure reached at about 14 kPa. The uptake of H₂ for the saturation coverage on a photocatalyst surface was determined by extrapolating the coverage of isotherm to $P(\text{H}_2) = 0$.

2.3. Photoactivity tests

Photocatalytic reductions were carried out in a reactor system connected to a vacuum pump, and a 500 W Hg lamp was used as the light source with a light intensity of 0.120 W cm^{-2} . For each test, 20 mg of a sample catalyst powder was evenly deposited on a circular quartz plate with a diameter of 50 cm and then placed inside the photo-reactor perpendicular to the light beam. 10 mL of gaseous- or 10 μL of liquid-reactant was injected into the vacuum reactor system, and the photocatalytic activities were determined at 298 K for 6 h in each run. The reaction products were monitored at a 60 min interval by an online gas chromatograph (Agilent Technology 7890A GC) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) for product analysis of O₂, CO and CH₄ and flame ionization detector (FID) for analyzing products of methanol, formaldehyde, C₂–C₅ hydrocarbons, and so on.

3. Results and discussion

Fig. 1A shows N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of the In₂O₃, 0.5Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃, and 2.0Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts. All of the photocatalysts exhibit type-IV adsorption with a hysteresis loop of type H1, indicating the existence of mesopore structures [26]. The isotherms

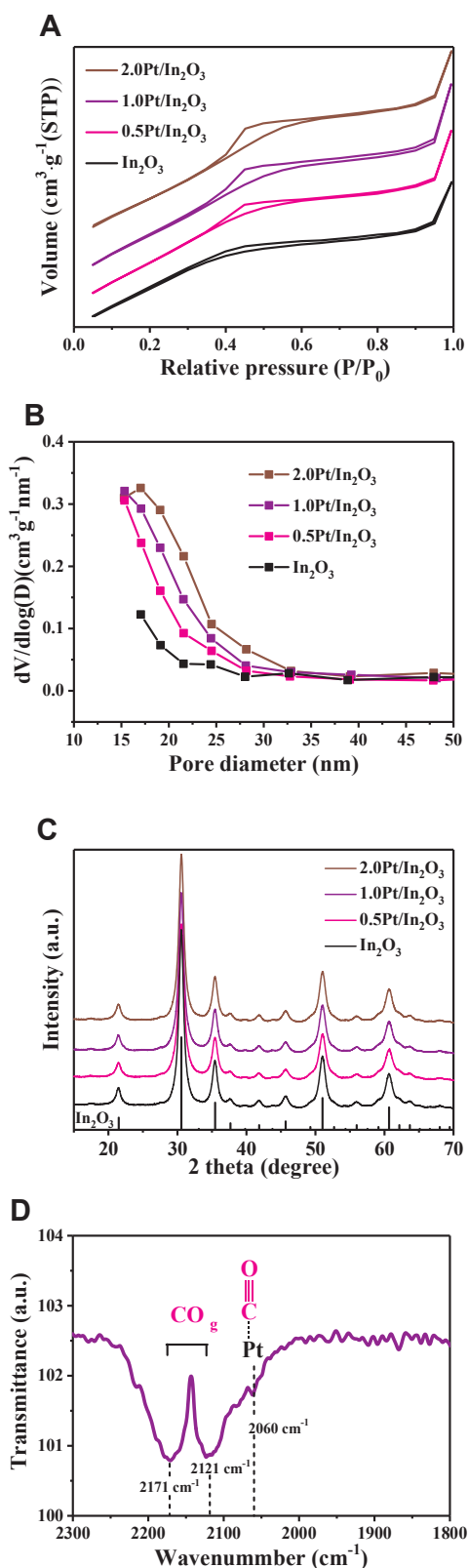


Fig. 1. (A) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms, (B) pore size distribution curves and (C) PXRD patterns of the In₂O₃, 0.5Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and 2.0Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts. (D) FTIR spectrum for the adsorption of CO at 300 K on the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃. The pore size distribution curve was derived from the adsorption branch of the isotherms.

obviously rise up at a relatively high pressure range of 0.96–1, implying some macropores exist in the photocatalysts [27]. Table 1 summarizes BET surface area, pore volume and pore size of the photocatalysts. The

Table 1

Composition, specific surface area, pore volume and average pore size of as-prepared photocatalysts.

Photocatalyst	Catalyst compositions (wt%)		Surface area (m ² g ⁻¹)	Average pore size (nm)	Pore volume (cm ³ g ⁻¹)
	In ₂ O ₃	Pt			
In ₂ O ₃	100	0	153.8	17.7	0.14
0.5Pt/In ₂ O ₃	99.5	0.5	162.1	19.4	0.16
1.0Pt/In ₂ O ₃	98.7	1.3	153.5	21.7	0.17
2.0Pt/In ₂ O ₃	97.7	2.3	143.0	22.3	0.16

surface area irregularly changes as Pt loadings increase, which was measured to be 153.8, 162.1, 153.5 and 143.0 m² g⁻¹ for In₂O₃, 0.5Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and 2.0Pt/In₂O₃, respectively. Unlike the surface area, the average pore size is slightly increased as the Pt loadings increase, and corresponding pore size distribution curves shift to the large pore size side (Fig. 1B). Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns for the photocatalysts indicate a single crystalline phase (Fig. 1C), assigned to the face-centered cubic In₂O₃ (space group #167, *Ia-3*) [25]. Their intensities are not influenced by the addition of Pt. Scherrer analysis of peak broadening shows crystallite sizes of 8–9 nm for In₂O₃ in the photocatalysts. The characteristic peaks of crystalline Pt were not observed for the 0.5Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and 2.0Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts, implying Pt particles might be highly dispersed onto In₂O₃.

Fig. 2A and B show scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the representative photocatalysts In₂O₃ and 1.0Pt/In₂O₃. A nanorod morphology was observed with lengths ranging from a few hundred nanometers to greater than 1 μm (Fig. 2A). The addition of Pt does not change the morphology of In₂O₃ (Fig. 2B). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ shows that the nanorods are assembled by small nanoparticles rather than a single crystal (Fig. 2C), which is in line with the character of the larger specific surface area. The crystalline fringes with an interplanar spacing of 0.29 nm can be observed, corresponding to the (222) plane of cubic In₂O₃ crystal, and a Pt particle with a size of about 4 nm is observed in Fig. 2D. As shown in Fig. 2S(B), Pt particles are well dispersed on In₂O₃, probably due to the synthetic method for Pt/In₂O₃, where H₂PtCl₆ and In(OH)₃ were used as precursors and two hydroxyls on the surface of In(OH)₃ would bind a H₂PtCl₆ through a neutralization reaction. Overall, the intrinsic structure of In₂O₃ is barely affected by the addition of Pt.

To illustrate the surface nature of metallic Pt, CO was used as a probe molecule for IR spectroscopy. As shown in Fig. 1D, a CO adsorption band at 2060 cm⁻¹ was observed, which can be assigned to CO adsorption in linear configuration [28]. The frequency of the linearly bonded CO is lower than those observed for CO adsorbed over on-top sites of metallic Pt single-crystal surface or metallic Pt nanoparticles supported on some conventional oxide carriers [29,30], indicating a stronger electron donor capacity of metallic Pt in the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ [28,31–33]. It is suggested that metallic Pt atoms bear high electron density because of support acting as an electron donor or high unsaturated degree of Pt particles. In addition, the peaks at 2190 and 2121 cm⁻¹ correspond to the stretching vibration of gaseous CO molecules. No clear evidence shows the existence of bridged/threefold bonded CO whose bands locate at the frequency region of 1800–2000 cm⁻¹ [31].

Diffuse reflectance spectroscopy measurements show that the In₂O₃ absorbs light with wavelength below 450 nm (Fig. 3A). The optical bandgap energy of In₂O₃ was estimated to be 3.4 eV (Fig. 1S in Supporting information) [7,34]. The visible-light absorption of the Pt/In₂O₃ samples was slightly improved (the inset of Fig. 3A), which is ascribed to the presence of Pt²⁺ species that will be indicated by the following XPS analysis. Static-state fluorescence (PL) spectroscopic measurements show a peak centered at 395 nm with a marked shoulder around 410 nm for the In₂O₃ and Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts (Fig. 3B). The

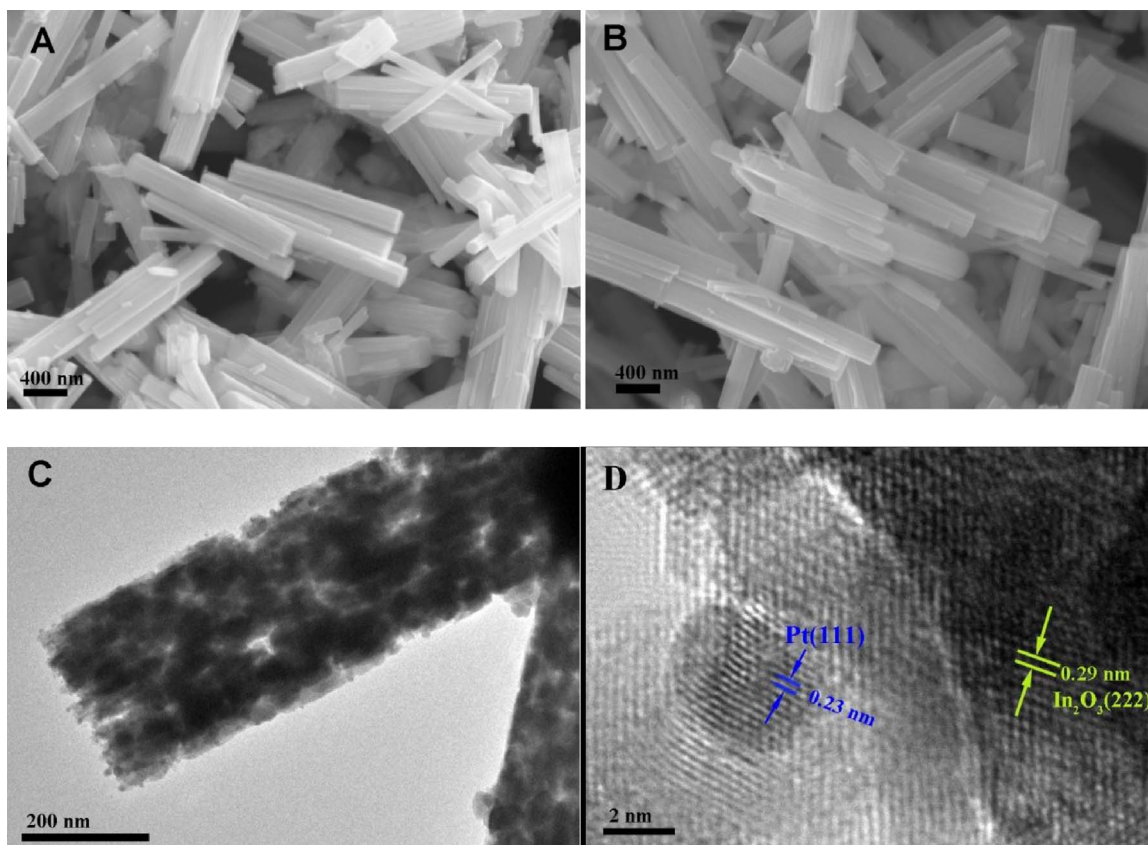


Fig. 2. (A, B) SEM images of the In₂O₃ and 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts, respectively. (C) TEM and (D) HRTEM images of the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃.

peak and its shoulder can be assigned to the near-band-edge emission and shallow-defect-level emission of In₂O₃, respectively [35]. The static-state PL intensity of In₂O₃ declines with increasing Pt loadings. This was attributed to an increase in recombination centers, which was reported to be detrimental for light emission [36]. The PL decay kinetics for the samples at 395 nm after 300 nm excitation were used to examine the recombination rate of the photoinduced electron and hole in photocatalysts. As shown in Fig. 3C, PL decay rate is accelerated with the presence of Pt. In general, the metallic Pt defers the recombination of the photoinduced charge carriers because of the presence of Schottky barriers at Pt-semiconductor interfaces [37], while Pt²⁺ is known as a recombination center of charge carriers [23]. Therefore, the accelerated recombination of photoinduced electron and hole in the Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts can be also ascribed to the presence of Pt²⁺. Note that the lifetime of charge carriers at In₂O₃-metallic Pt interface should be extended.

The performances of photocatalysts were evaluated for CO₂ reduction with H₂O vapor under simulated sunlight irradiation. Besides oxygen, CO and CH₄ were found to be the main products for CO₂ photoreduction, which is in agreement with previous reports [5,7,38,39]. Some possible intermediate products such as HCOOH, CH₂O, and CH₃O were not detected in gas phase, likely due to low abundance of these products, with concentrations below the detection limit of GC instrumentation. As shown in Fig. 4, the yields of CO and CH₄ increase with irradiation time. At 6 h, the CO yield was measured to be about 39.6, 11.5, 8.6 and 15.6 μmol g⁻¹, and the yield of CH₄ was 2.1, 5.6, 21.0 and 18.5 μmol g⁻¹ for In₂O₃, 0.5Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and 2.0Pt/In₂O₃, respectively. For comparison, the activities of a commercial TiO₂ and the Pt-decorated TiO₂ with Pt loading of 1% (1.0Pt/TiO₂) were explored and the results are shown in Fig. 4S of the Supporting information. At 6 h, the CO yield was monitored to be 24.2 and 20.6 μmol g⁻¹ and the CH₄ yield was 2.7 and 48.8 μmol g⁻¹ for TiO₂ and 1.0Pt/TiO₂, respectively. It is evident that CO yield decreases

while CH₄ increases after the addition of Pt to either In₂O₃ or TiO₂. At the same time, according to the amount of CO and CH₄, it can be estimated that CO₂ conversion is decreased for 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and is increased for 1.0Pt/TiO₂. The latter case is in agreement with previous reports [21,23]. Additionally, two control experiments were performed: (1) simulated sunlight irradiation in the absence of catalyst, and (2) irradiation of catalyst and H₂O vapor with simulated sunlight in the absence of CO₂. CO and CH₄ products were not monitored by gas phase analysis in the two experiments, showing the photocatalytic conversion of CO₂.

The enhanced CH₄ yield are commonly attributed to the enhanced photoinduced electron lifetime, due to a Schottky junction formed at the Pt-semiconductor interface [40–42]. Nevertheless, it is difficult to explain the decrease of CO yield only in terms of the prolonged photoinduced-electron lifetime. In dynamics, the reduction of CO₂ to CO requires two electrons, while eight electrons are needed for CH₄ production. As such, the amount of CO should also be increased with the photoinduced electrons lifetime. Moreover, there is no evidence indicating that the decreased CO yield is attributed to the fast conversion of producing CO to CH₄ under light irradiation. Fig. 5S shows the results of photocatalytic reductions of CO₂, and CO with H₂ over the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃, where H₂ instead of H₂O was used as reductant, aiming to suppress the possible oxidation of CO by H₂O-derived oxygen. The CH₄ yield derived from the CO conversion is only 16.4 μmol g⁻¹ at 6 h of simulated sunlight irradiation, lower than that of 35.6 μmol g⁻¹ for CO₂ photoreduction. Based on the carbon balance, the practical CO yield was estimated to be about 47.7 μmol g⁻¹ (16.4 plus 31.3 μmol g⁻¹) at 6 h over the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃, which is still lower than that of 58.4 μmol g⁻¹ over the In₂O₃. On the other hand, In₂O₃ is an n-type semiconductor with the conduction band minimum level of -0.62 V versus NHE [43,44]. After being decorated with metallic Pt, an upward band bending would occur at the Pt-In₂O₃ interface due to an apparently higher Fermi level of In₂O₃ than that of Pt [43,45]. Thus, the reduction

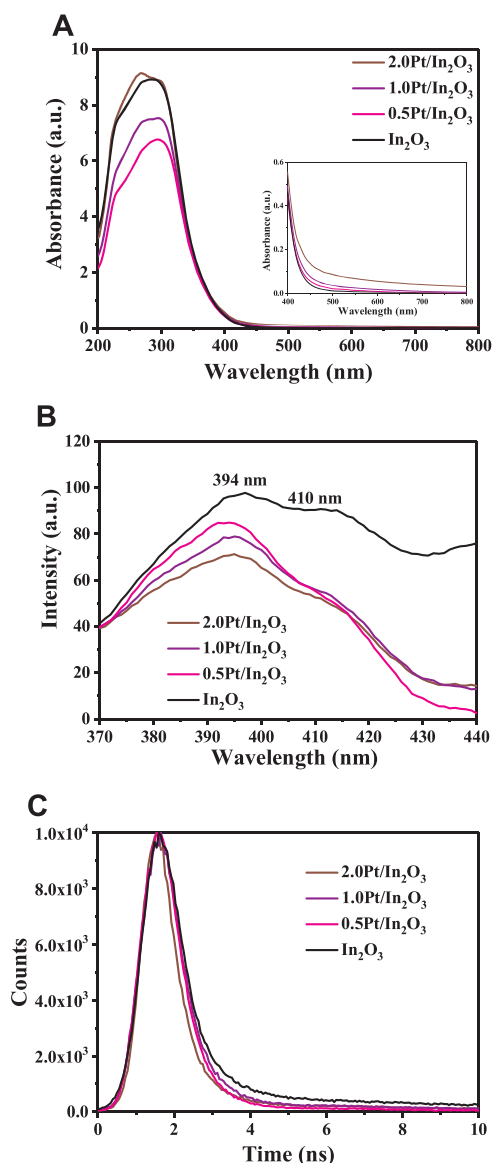


Fig. 3. (A) UV-vis absorption spectra of the In₂O₃, 0.5Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and 2.0Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts. (B) Static-state fluorescence spectra of the photocatalysts. (C) The PL decay kinetics for the samples at 395 nm after 300 nm excitation.

of CO₂ to CO over Pt/In₂O₃, requiring the reduction potential of -0.48 V vs. NHE [46,47], is thermodynamically feasible. At the same time, it is found that low CO yields can be obtained over Pt-decorated semiconductors with different conduction band potentials such as Zn₂GeO₄, CeO₂, LaPO₄, C₃N₄, and so on [3,12,48,49], which also implies that the decreased CO yield cannot be ascribed to thermodynamic factor. Therefore, we speculated that there is another reason that jointly support the high selectivity to CH₄ production and low CO yield over Pt-semiconductor catalysts.

Fig. 5 shows XPS spectra of the In₂O₃ and 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts. No impurities other than a very limited amount of contaminants carbon and chlorine were detected (Fig. 5A). The chlorine comes from the raw materials (InCl₃ and H₂PtCl₆) in the photocatalyst preparation. Two peaks centered at 444.2 and 451.8 eV can be assigned to the spin-orbit coupling of In 3d_{5/2} and 3d_{3/2} for In₂O₃ [50]. Corresponding peaks for 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ shift to the high binding energy side by 0.2 eV (Fig. 5B). For O 1s core level XPS, the peak assigned to lattice oxygen of cubic In₂O₃ was observed with a shoulder, shifting from a binding energy of 529.6 for the In₂O₃ to 529.9 eV for the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalyst. The shoulder at about 532.4 eV is due to the surface

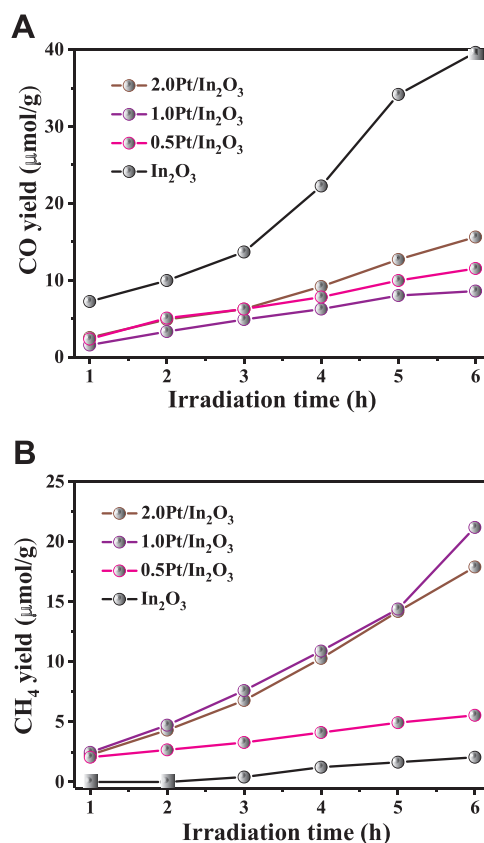


Fig. 4. Yields of CO (A) and CH₄ (B) products for CO₂ photoreduction with H₂O (g) as a function of irradiation time over the In₂O₃, 0.5Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and 2.0Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts under simulated light irradiation.

hydroxyl. Pt 4f core level XPS measurement indicates that Pt²⁺ and Pt⁰ are present with Pt⁰ atomic ratio of 29% relative to total Pt on the surface of 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ (Fig. 5D) [51]. Pt²⁺ comes from the partial reduction product (PtCl₂) of H₂PtCl₆. These results indicate that the electron densities of In and O on the surface of 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ is slightly decreased relative to those on In₂O₃, leading to the higher binding energies, which can be explained in terms of a higher electronegativity of Pt (2.28) than that of In (1.78). When Pt species contacts with the surface of In₂O₃, the valance electrons of O are attracted by Pt species. Meanwhile, the bonding electrons in In–O will further depart from In atoms via inductive effect.

To illustrate the effect of Pt species on the co-adsorption of CO₂ with H₂O, the FTIR measurements were carried out. As shown in Fig. 6A, the peaks at 1645, 1549, 1510, 1429, 1394, 1338 and 1219 cm⁻¹ are observed for In₂O₃, which can be assigned to bicarbonates (HCO₃⁻), bidentated carbonate (b-CO₃²⁻) and monodentated carbonate (m-CO₃²⁻) species [52–55]. However, these peaks are not observed for the 1.0 Pt/In₂O₃ and 2.0 Pt/In₂O₃ (Fig. 3S). When the Pt loadings is decreased to 0.5%, these peaks with weak intensity reappear (Fig. 6S). Because bicarbonate- and carbonate-like species are active under light irradiation [26], a loss of them might cause a decrease in CO₂ conversion, which explains the aforementioned observation about CO₂ reduction with H₂O over the Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts. On the other hand, the molecularly adsorbed CO₂ were all observed on the In₂O₃ and 1.0 Pt/In₂O₃. It is well known that when CO₂ molecule is bonded to the surface oxygen atom of In₂O₃ through its carbon atom, surface m-CO₃²⁻ species is formed (Fig. 6B). If CO₂ is simultaneously bonded to the oxygen and In sites of In₂O₃ through its carbon and oxygen, surface b-CO₃²⁻ species will be formed, and the surface HCO₃⁻ species is derived from a reaction of CO₂ with surface hydroxyl. CO₂ molecule is bound with In atom of In₂O₃ through its oxygen atom, yielding molecularly adsorbed CO₂

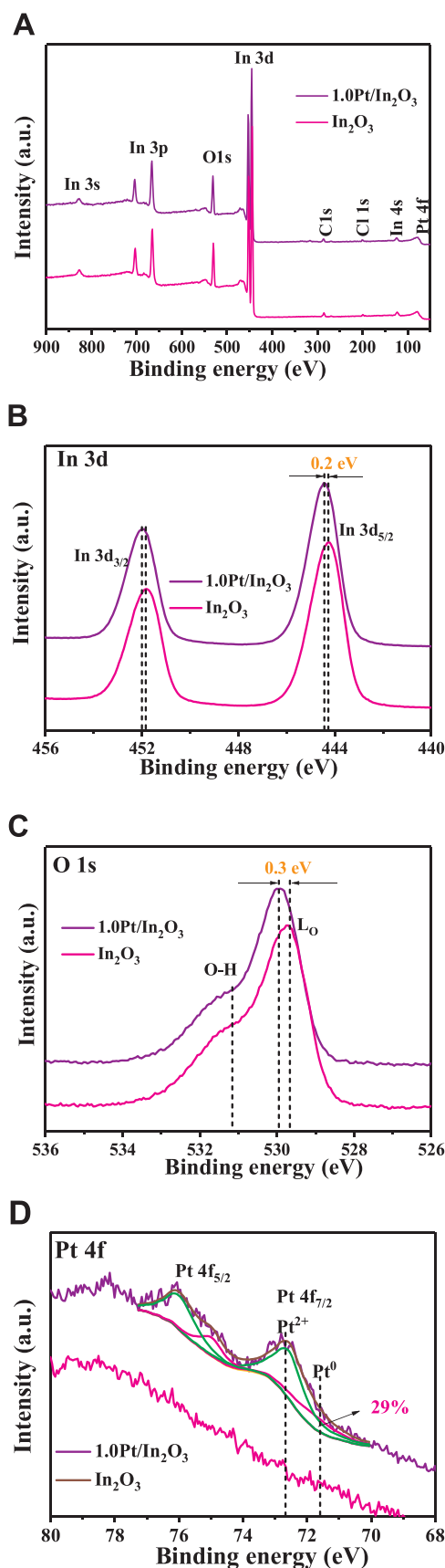


Fig. 5. (A) Survey, (B) In 3d, (C) O 1s, and (D) Pt 4f core level XPS spectra of the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and In₂O₃ photocatalysts.

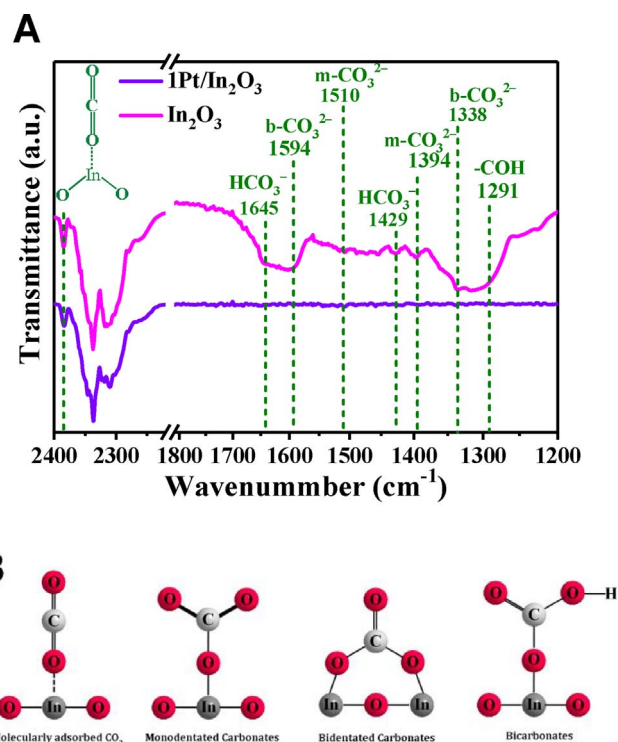


Fig. 6. (A) The FTIR spectra for the coadsorption of CO₂ and H₂O (g) on the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and In₂O₃ photocatalysts. (B) Schematic surface species for the coadsorption of CO₂ and H₂O (g) on the photocatalysts.

(Fig. 6B). As such, a loss of HCO₃[−], b-CO₃^{2−} and m-CO₃^{2−} on the Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts indicates that the oxygen atoms on the surface of In₂O₃ might be covered by Pt species, which is also implied by the XPS analysis. It should be noted that the HCO₃[−], b-CO₃^{2−} and m-CO₃^{2−} species weren't suppressed for the adsorption of CO₂ on Pt-decorated TiO₂ [21,56,57]. For example, Xiong et al. and Mao et al. reported that the effect of Pt on the CO₂ chemisorption was not obvious over TiO₂ [21,56]. Also, Long et al. reported that CuPd alloy similar to Pt did not prevent the formation of HCO₃[−] and carbonate-like species on TiO₂ [57]. More importantly, the high CH₄ production selectivity and low CO yield were also obtained over these reported photocatalysts. Therefore, the lack of HCO₃[−], b-CO₃^{2−} and m-CO₃^{2−} species over Pt decorated In₂O₃ should not be directly related with the high CH₄ selectivity and low CO yield in the work.

To probe whether some intermediate products of CO₂ reduction are influenced by Pt species in photocatalytic CO₂ reduction, leading to the higher CH₄ production selectivity, we evaluated the photocatalytic reduction of intermediate products to CH₄ such as CO, HCOOH, CH₂O, and CH₃O over the In₂O₃ and 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ under simulated sunlight irradiation. In this study, H₂ instead of H₂O was used as reductant, aiming to block the oxidation of these intermediate products by H₂O-derived oxygen. As can be seen from Fig. 7, more CH₄ was produced for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction with H₂ than with H₂O over In₂O₃ and 1.0Pt/In₂O₃. CH₄ was also produced in the reduction of CO, HCOOH, CH₂O, and CH₃O over 1.0Pt/In₂O₃, and its yield was measured to be about 16.4, 7.6, 16.7 and 6.7 μmol g^{−1} under simulated-sunlight irradiation of 6 h, respectively. Unexpectedly, the CH₄ yields derived from intermediate products reduction are obviously lower than that of 35.6 μmol g^{−1} for CO₂ reduction, although the reduction of intermediate products requires less photoinduced electrons relative to CO₂ reduction. So far, two pathways for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction were proposed according to whether the hydrogenation or the deoxygenation process is faster [1,47,58]. In the fast-hydrogenation pathway, CO₂ is reduced along the path CO₂ → HCOOH → CH₂O → CH₃OH → CH₄; while in the fast-deoxygenation pathway, it follows the path CO₂ →

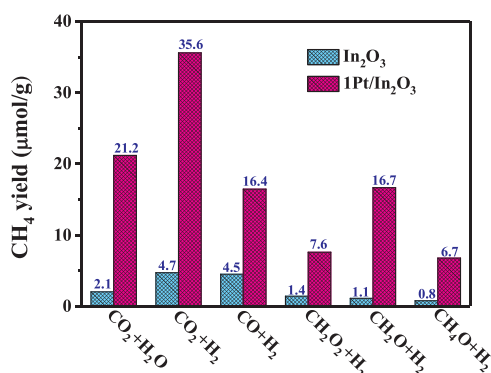


Fig. 7. CH₄ yields for the C1 molecules photoreduction over 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and In₂O₃ photocatalysts at 6 h of simulated light irradiation.

CO → C· → CH₂· → CH₃· → CH₄ [59]. Some intermediates in both pathways have been detected [1,58]. For example, carbon radicals signals were detected by ESR spectroscopy [1]. Recent theoretical calculation by Ji et al. shows that photocatalytic CO₂ reduction follows both the fast-hydrogenation and fast deoxygenation pathways [59]. Combining theoretical calculation with the results obtained in the present work, it is plausible that photocatalytic CO₂ reduction indeed proceeds via multiple pathways. In contrast, the reduction of intermediate products might only follow a specific pathway. As a result, more active species for CH₄ formation were produced in CO₂ reduction, leading to the higher CH₄ production yield. On the other hand, the CH₄ yield over the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ is obviously higher than that over the In₂O₃, regardless of which intermediate product is served as oxidant, implying that the factor of enhancing the CH₄ selectivity might relate with the reductant (H₂ or H₂O). Theoretical calculations indicate that H₂ and H₂O can be dissociatively adsorbed on Pt and In₂O₃ [54,60–63]. For H₂O molecule, H adatom and surface hydroxyl are formed on Pt, and H₂O-derived H and OH are bound to O and In on the surface of In₂O₃, thus forming two hydroxyls. For H₂, homolytic dissociation produces two hydroxyls on In₂O₃ [54,59,63,64], and heterolytic dissociation results in H–In and O–H species on the surface of In₂O₃. Homolytic dissociation is highly energetically favorable. Moreover, the adsorption energies for H₂ and H₂O is higher on In₂O₃ than on Pt, owing to a higher bonding energy of O–H bond than that of Pt–H bond [54,65]. As such, it can be speculated that the transfer of H in Pt–H to CO₂ will overcome a less barrier than that in O–H bond. Therefore, it is suggested that H adatoms play a key role in enhancing CH₄ selectivity over Pt-decorated semiconductors.

To further evidence the significant role of H adatoms to CH₄ selectivity, we evaluated the performance of a set of photocatalysts with different H₂ uptakes for CO₂ reduction to CH₄. Fig. 8A shows coverage vs. pressure of H₂ on the In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃-W and 1.0Ag/In₂O₃ photocatalysts. The ratio of metallic Pt relative to total Pt in the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃-W is about 35%, as indicated by XPS results (Fig. 7S). The uptakes of H₂ increase with pressure on photocatalysts. The saturation coverage of H₂, obtained by extrapolating the coverage of isotherm to P (H₂) = 0, is 2.7, 34.2, 46.1 and 12.6 μmol/g for In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃-W and 1.0Ag/In₂O₃, respectively. Obviously, the H₂ uptake for In₂O₃ is the least. The addition of Pt and Ag promotes the adsorption of H₂. Among the three hybrid photocatalysts, the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃-W shows the highest H₂ uptake. These results indicate that the H₂ dissociative barrier on Pt (or Ag) is significantly lower than that on In₂O₃, which is further evidenced by the following experimental results for the reduction of the In₂O₃ and 1.0 Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts (Fig. 8B). The 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ was fully reduced to metallic In in H₂ at 723 K for 2 h. However, the In₂O₃ was not reduced to form In under the same condition. Only a change occurs in color from light gray to dark gray, which is ascribed to In₂O₃ surface reduction. It is well known that H₂ molecule was firstly dissociated to form H atoms before redox reactions.

Thus, metallic Pt promoted the dissociation of H₂ molecule to more active H atoms. Fig. 8C and D shows the yields of CO and CH₄ and the selectivity to CH₄ over the photocatalysts for the reduction of CO₂ with H₂. The mean CO yield was measured to be about 58.3, 31.3, 2.7 and 27.4 μmol/g, the mean CH₄ yield was 4.7, 33.6, 51.0 and 12.5 μmol/g for In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃-W and 1.0Ag/In₂O₃, respectively. According to the amount of CO and CH₄, the conversion of CO₂ was calculated to be about 63.0, 64.9, 53.7 and 39.9 μmol/g for In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃-W and 1.0Ag/In₂O₃, respectively. Clearly, the presence of Pt (or Ag) does not promote the conversion of CO₂, only changing the product selectivity. The selectivity to CH₄ was calculated to be 7.4, 51.9, 93.3 and 31.3 for In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃-W and 1.0Ag/In₂O₃, respectively (Fig. 8D). This is positively correlated to the H₂ uptakes by the photocatalysts. Besides, Ag and Pt has a common property of strong dissociation ability to H₂, and high CH₄ selectivities were simultaneously achieved over Ag- and Pt-decorated In₂O₃. The result also indicates the key role of H adatoms in CH₄ formation. It should be noted that the particle size of metallic Pt is another key factor to the selectivity of CO₂ reduction. Wang et al. have investigated the correlation between the Pt particle size and the selectivity of CO₂ reduction over TiO₂ single crystals. It was found that high CO₂ photo-reduction efficiency with selective formation of methane was achieved when the Pt particle size is 0.5–2 nm, and the optimal size was found to be around 1 nm. Pt particles on this nanoscale have a suitable Fermi level due to quantum effect, thereby effectively promoting the photo-induced electron transfer [24]. According to the TEM images shown in Fig. 2S, the sizes of Pt particles of the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and 1.0Pt/In₂O₃-W samples were estimated to be 3–5 nm, and there is no observable difference in the Pt particle size between 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ and 1.0Pt/In₂O₃-W (Figs. 2S and 3S). Note that on the nanoscale of 3–5 nm quantum effect is not so obvious. Therefore, possible effect of the size of Pt particles on the selectivity to CH₄ was not be considered in the work.

The bonding of CO₂ with H can be seen as thermal chemical process following the photo-activation of CO₂. As such, the selectivity to CH₄ should be influenced by H₂ partial pressure. Therefore, the CH₄ selectivity in different partial pressure ratios of CO₂ to H₂ was evaluated over the 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ sample. As shown in Fig. 8, the CH₄ selectivity decreases with decreasing H₂ partial pressures, further confirming the critical role of H supply in CH₄ formation. In photocatalytic CO₂ reduction, H₂ molecule is oxidized to produce two protons being bound to coordinatively unsaturated oxygens on the surface of In₂O₃. When the protons transfer to the O in CO₂, CO and H₂O will be formed, which is so-called deoxygenation process; If the protons transfer to C in CO₂, the probability of CH₄ formation will be obviously increased, as indicated in Scheme 1. To produce CH₄, the C in CO₂ needs to fight for the protons with the oxygen on the surface of In₂O₃. Notably, the C of CO₂ is at a disadvantage, owing to its electronegativity lower than that of oxygen. However, the presence of metallic Pt cocatalyst will change the unfavorable case. H₂ is first dissociated to form Pt–H bonds on Pt surface. As such, it becomes easy to the capture of protons by the C in CO₂ from Pt–H species, since the electronegativity of C (2.55) is higher than that of Pt. In dynamics, the sufficient and fast proton supply is a prerequisites for CH₄ production, since the formation of CH₄ from CO₂ requires eight protons and multiple steps [66]. The metallic Pt can supply a plenty of H adatoms, and the H adatoms on metallic Pt can be more quickly bound with CO₂ than that on In₂O₃, owing to a relatively weaker bonding of Pt–H. Therefore, the metallic Pt acts as atomic hydrogen reservoir that supplies sufficient and readily available protons for CH₄ production.

In addition, although the CO₂ conversion is not increased over Pt-decorated In₂O₃ photocatalysts in the work, the number of the photo-induced electrons involved in the reduction is actually increased because the number of required electrons for CH₄ production is three times more than that for CO. Thus, the extended lifetime of photo-induced electrons is still an indispensable factor for the enhanced selectivity to CH₄ production, which has been verified in previous studies

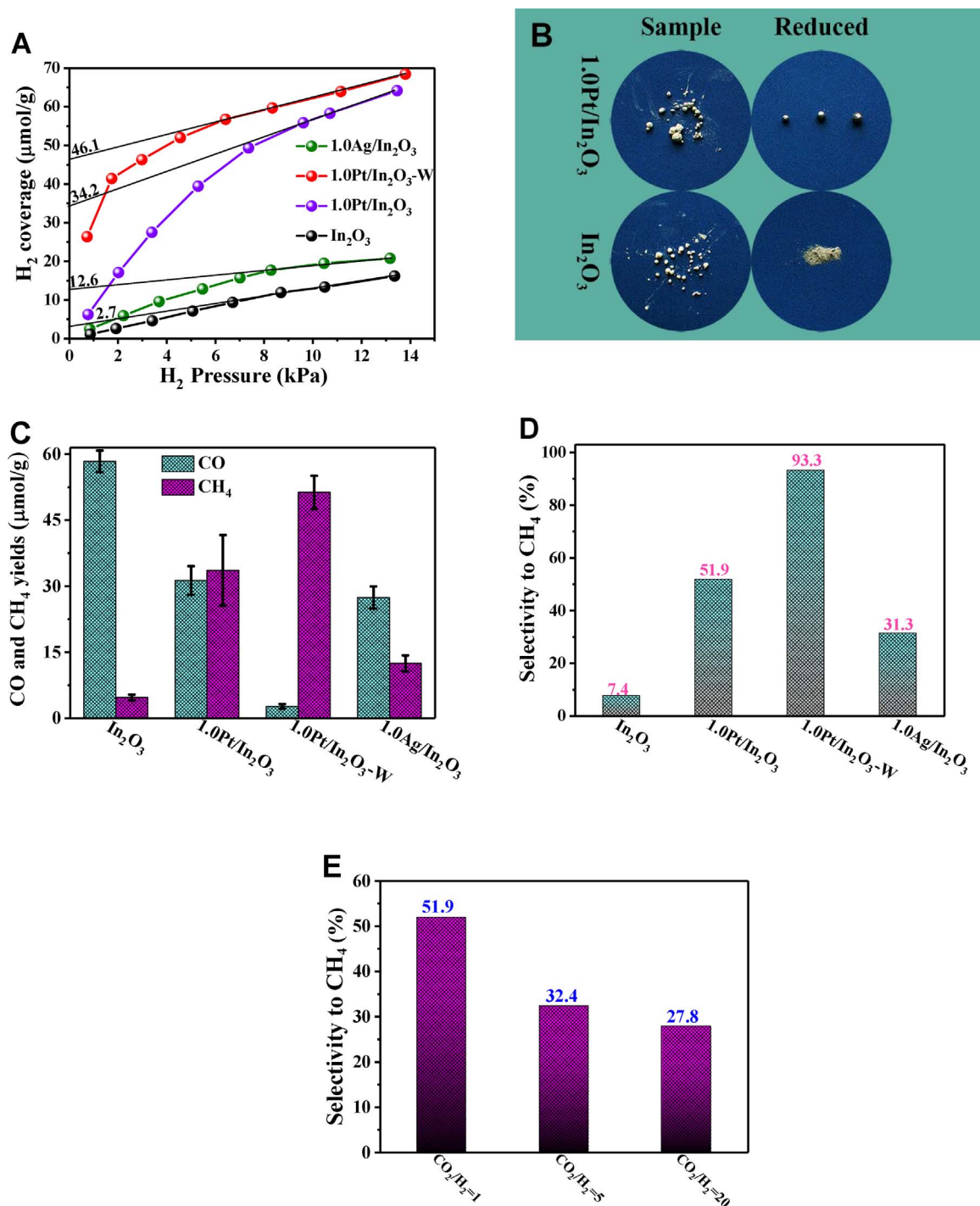


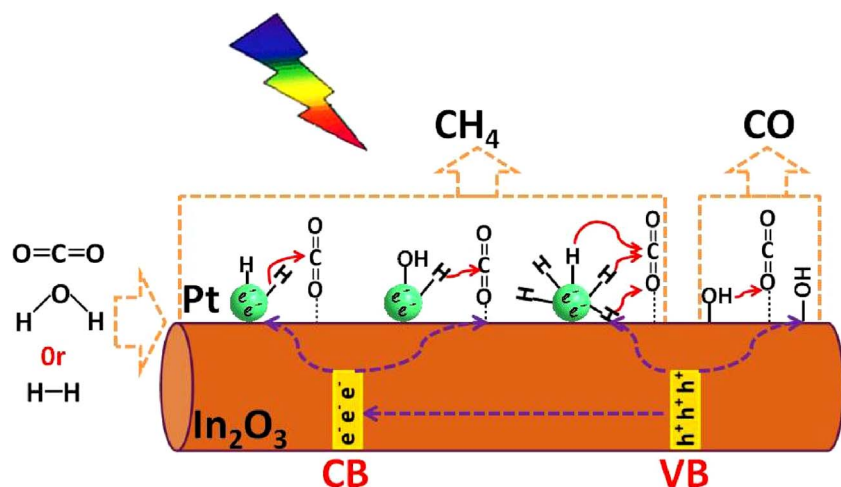
Fig. 8. (A) Coverage vs. pressure of H₂ on the In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃-W and 1.0Ag/In₂O₃. (B) The photograph of the In₂O₃ and 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ photocatalysts before and after reduction in H₂ flow at 723 K for 2 h. (C) Yields of CO and CH₄ products and (D) the selectivity to CH₄ for the photoreduction of CO₂ with H₂ on In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃, 1.0Pt/In₂O₃-W and 1.0Ag/In₂O₃. The error bars represent the standard deviations of three independent measurements of the same sample. (E) The selectivity to CH₄ over 1.0Pt/In₂O₃ in different partial pressure ratios of CO₂ to H₂.

[21,24].

4. Conclusions

In summary, highly-dispersed-Pt decorated In₂O₃ nanorods (Pt/In₂O₃) were prepared using a precipitation method in conjunction with photodeposition, where acidic H₂PtCl₆ and basic In(OH)₃ were selected as precursors for enhancing Pt dispersion. The presence of Pt does not change the intrinsic structure of In₂O₃, but modulates the surface property of In₂O₃ due to electronic and steric effect, which results in a

loss of HCO₃⁻, b-CO₃²⁻ and m-CO₃²⁻ species for the coadsorption of CO₂ with H₂O on Pt/In₂O₃. However, this is not the cause of the high CH₄ production selectivity and low CO yield for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction over Pt/In₂O₃. Photocatalytic CO, HCOOH, CH₂O, and CH₃OH reductions over Pt/In₂O₃ as well as photocatalytic CO₂ reduction over photocatalysts with different H₂ uptakes confirm that H adatoms derived from H₂ or H₂O dissociation on Pt play a key role in the formation of CH₄. Low H₂ dissociation barrier on Pt and weak H-Pt bond facilitate the bonding of C in CO₂ with H, thus restraining CO production. Combining with previous reports [24], it can be concluded



Scheme 1. The probable transfer paths of H atoms derived from H_2 or H_2O to adsorbed CO_2 over $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{O}_3$.

that metallic Pt not only extends photoinduced-electron lifetime but also acts as atomic hydrogen reservoir that supplies sufficient and readily-available protons for CH_4 formation. The two roles by Pt would well explain the experimental results of the high selectivity to CH_4 production and low CO yield over $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{O}_3$. The present work deepens the understanding of mechanism for Pt-promoted CH_4 formation over Pt-semiconductor photocatalysts, offering a new window to explore non-noble metals or their alloys with stability in air and high dissociation ability to H_2O or H_2 as a replacement of Pt for CO_2 photo-reduction to CH_4 .

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2018.01.005>.

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